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Weep and Get More: When and Why Sadness Expression Is Effective in Negotiations

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Abstract

Although research has recently accumulated on emotional expressions in negotiations, no research has yet explored whether expressing sadness could have effects in negotiations. We propose that sadness expressions can increase expressers' ability to claim value in negotiations because they make recipients experience greater other-concern for the expresser. However, only when the social situation provides recipients with reasons to experience concern for the expresser in the first place, will recipients act upon their other-concern and, eventually, concede more to a sad expresser. Three experiments tested this proposition by examining face-to-face, actual negotiations (where participants interacted with each other). In all three experiments, recipients conceded more to a sad expresser when, but only when, features of the social situation provided reasons to experience other-concern for the expresser, namely (a) when recipients perceived the expresser as low-power (Experiment 1), (b) when recipients anticipated a future interaction (Experiment 1), (c) when recipients construed the relationship as collaborative in nature (Experiment 2), or (d) when recipients believed that it was inappropriate to blame others (Experiment 3). All three experiments showed that the positive effect of sadness expression was mediated by the recipients' greater other-concern. These findings extend previous research on emotional expressions in negotiations by emphasizing a distinct mechanism.

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At the peak of the Cuban Missile Crisis, Robert F. Kennedy, a close aide to U.S. President John F. Kennedy, talked with Soviet Ambassador to the U.S. Anatoly Dobrynin. In this critical exchange, Robert Kennedy acted quite emotional through expressing sadness dramatically. He “was almost crying.” “I haven’t seen my children for days now,” he said while almost breaking down in tears, in a sad way, “and the President hasn’t seen his either [...] I don’t know how much longer we can hold out against our generals,” according to the Soviet account (Allison, 1971; Divine, 1988; Khrushchev, 1970, p. 51). In response to the sadness conveyed by Robert Kennedy, Soviet Premier Khrushchev thought that “We could see that we had to reorient our position swiftly” and he “sent the Americans a note saying we agreed to remove our missiles and bombers” (Khrushchev, 1970, p. 51). Although many factors influenced Khrushchev’s decision, this anecdote suggests that expressions of sadness might be effective in securing acquiescence in conflict and negotiation. Indeed, both business (Koren & Goodman, 1991; Roche, 2010, p. 60) and diplomacy (Ynetnews, 2006) analysts have anecdotally observed that, although this seems counter-intuitive, expressing sadness might elicit concessions in conflict and negotiation.

In this paper, we empirically examine whether people who express sadness in negotiation might be effective in inducing more concessions in their negotiation counterparts. Building on fundamental theories of emotion (e.g., Frijda, 2007; Scherer & Grandjean, 2008), we propose that sadness expressions could induce concessions in negotiations because they make recipients experience greater other-concern for the expresser. However, we also argue that only when the social situation provides recipients with reasons to experience concern for the expresser in the first place, will recipients *act upon* their other-concern and, eventually, concede more to a sad expresser. Thus, we propose that the social context in which the expression of sadness takes

place constitutes a critical boundary condition for the counter-intuitive, positive effect of sadness to occur in negotiations.

Three experiments tested this proposition by examining actual, face-to-face negotiations (where participants interacted with each other). All three experiments focused on social situations that might provide recipients with reasons to experience concern for the expresser in the first place. Thus, our experiments investigated social contexts in which recipients could be motivated to act upon their other-concern for the expresser. More specifically, we examined four features of the social context that might provide justifications to experience other-concern for a sad expresser, namely (a) when recipients perceived the expresser as low-power (Experiment 1), (b) when recipients anticipated a future interaction (Experiment 1), (c) when recipients construed the relationship as collaborative in nature (Experiment 2), and (d) when recipients believed that it was inappropriate to blame others (Experiment 3). Further, all three experiments tested whether the recipients' greater other-concern mediated the positive effect that sadness expression had in each of these social contexts. To our knowledge, the current research is the first to investigate the potential role of sadness expression in conflict and negotiation.

Expressed Emotions in Negotiation

Discrete expressions of emotions often arise in social interactions (Clark, Pataki, & Carver, 1996; Van Kleef, De Dreu, & Manstead, 2010). These discrete emotional expressions, it has been argued, bear important social consequences (Barry, 1999; Morris & Keltner, 2000) by serving as incentives for others' social behavior or by eliciting complementary emotions in others (Keltner & Haidt, 1999). Indeed, recipients are quite adept at reading people's discrete emotion expressions (Ekman, 1993; Scherer & Grandjean, 2008). Furthermore, recipients often attach importance to these in social interactions (Clark et al., 1996; Elfenbein, 2007; Van Kleef

et al., 2010). Based on these premises, recent research has focused on various effects of discrete emotional expressions in interactions such as conflict and negotiation (Van Kleef et al., 2010). In general, that research has shown that negotiators can strategically express emotions to elicit concessions from recipients in conflict and negotiation, especially when some factors in the social situation motivate recipients to pay attention to the expresser's emotions (e.g., Kopelman, Rosette, & Thompson, 2006; Kopelman & Rosette, 2008; Overbeck, Neale, & Govan, 2010; Sinaceur & Tiedens, 2006; Van Kleef & Côté, 2007; Van Kleef & De Dreu, 2010; Van Kleef, De Dreu, & Manstead, 2004a, 2004b, 2006a; Van Kleef, De Dreu, Pietroni, & Manstead, 2006b; Wang, Northcraft, & Van Kleef, 2012; but see Friedman, Anderson, Brett, Olekalns, & Goates, 2004; Sinaceur, Van Kleef, Neale, Adam, & Haag, 2011).

The Expression of Sadness

One emotional expression that is basic and important (Ekman, 1993; Ekman & Friesen, 1975; Elfenbein, 2006; Horstmann, 2003; Scherer & Grandjean, 2008), but whose effects, as far as we know, have not been investigated in conflict and negotiation, is that of sadness. In fact, as far as we know, no prior research even beyond the conflict and negotiation literature has investigated the effects of sadness expressions on the recipients' reaction in a direct social interaction (i.e., when sadness, as a discrete emotion, is explicitly expressed and directed toward the recipients). Thus, whether sadness expression could have a positive effect in conflict and negotiation, and if so, under which circumstances and through which mechanism this effect would come about has remained unexplored.

This is unfortunate because sadness is an emotion that people may express in negotiation – a situation in which high personal stakes are often involved and the context is that of social, interdependent relationships (Barry, Fulmer, & Van Kleef, 2004; Elfenbein, 2007; see Donnelly,

Brehman, Brehman, & Barchard, 2009; Garot, 2004; Scherer & Ceschi, 2000; Sutton, 1991; Vince, 2006). For example, sadness may be vividly expressed by negotiators as diverse as employees of a firm undergoing an acquisition (Vince, 2006), long-standing debtors (Sutton, 1991), airline passengers (Scherer & Ceschi, 2000), romantic partners (Donnelly et al., 2009) or applicants for housing subsidies (Garot, 2004). As Barry (2008) put it, sadness fully belongs to “the range of human emotional experience” (p. 102) and is one emotion that can arise “out of ongoing social relationships, and occur in the context of significant conflicts” (p. 103). Interestingly, sadness is one of the most frequent emotions that human infants learn to strategically display toward adults (Buss & Kiel, 2004). Consistent with these recent arguments and evidence, it is also one of the most accurately recognized by observers (Elfenbein, 2006; Scherer & Grandjean, 2008, p. 795).

Emotion theorists have argued that sadness is an important emotion because it arises when individuals face a loss or adversity, for example the loss of a close one in personal situations (Frijda, 2007; Scherer & Tran, 2001), “but also prolonged adverse circumstances” such as hardships in less personal, more professional situations (Frijda, 2007, p. 104). Hence, sadness expression, it has been argued, signals that the expresser is helpless and experiencing difficulty to adjust to the current situation (Clark et al., 1996; Frijda, 2007; Planalp, 1999; Van Kleef et al., 2010). For example, sadness can be seen as conveying the messages, “Take care of me” (Fridlund, 1994) or “Please support me” (see Yik & Russell, 1999). Thus, sadness expression might potentially be important in affecting the recipients’ feelings, thoughts, and concession-making in conflict and negotiation. Along this line of reasoning, emotion researchers (Clark et al., 1996; Van Kleef et al., 2010) have proposed that the expression of sadness might be used strategically in adult, social relationships.

Empirical research has provided support for the argument that sadness expression has an important signaling function in social life. First, the expression of sadness constitutes a call for help (Graham, Huang, Clark, & Helgeson, 2008; Horstmann, 2003; Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson, & O'Connor, 1987; Tomkins, 1963). For example, a sad face is essentially understood as a request for help (Horstmann, 2003). Sadness signals dependency and a need for support (Clark & Taraban, 1991; Eisenberg, 2000; Kennedy-Moore & Watson, 2001; Scherer & Grandjean, 2008). Thus, the expression of sadness produces important reactions in recipients. It elicits in recipients concern for the expresser, i.e., an other-oriented reaction, which, in turn, induces helping behavior (Clark et al., 1996; Eisenberg et al., 1989; Eisenberg, 2000; Small & Verrochi, 2009). In particular, the expression of sadness has the effect of eliciting reactions of empathy and compassion for the expresser as well as recognizing that the expresser might need one's help (Eisenberg et al., 1989; Horstmann, 2003; Small & Verrochi, 2009). Although this effect of sadness on the recipients' other-concern has not been demonstrated in the domain of conflict and negotiation, it seems plausible that it would extend to conflict and negotiation, and that it could potentially affect such professional interactions. Specifically, we suggest that sadness expression could increase the recipients' other-concern in conflict and negotiation, which, in turn, could impact the recipients' concession-making.

How Recipients Construe the Social Situation

Whether recipients have reasons to experience concern for the expresser in the first place will likely influence a recipient's behavioral response, however. In general, emotion theorists have argued that a potent factor that makes an emotional expression useful is the current social situation in which that emotional expression takes place (Forgas & George, 2001; Morris & Keltner, 2000; Parrott, 2001). Thus, considering the social context in which negotiators express

sadness is warranted. Indeed, the same emotion carries different behavioral consequences in different contexts (George & Zhou, 2002).

Specifically, because negotiation is a mixed-motive interaction (e.g., Carnevale & De Dreu, 2006), we suggest that recipients of sadness expressions may not always act upon their other-concern in negotiated interactions. Related to our argument, in a recent, hitherto untested theorizing, Van Kleef and his colleagues (2010) proposed that expressions of sadness invite cooperation in cooperative interactions, but are *ignored* in competitive interactions. Consistent with these ideas, sadness has been found to increase helping in communal relationships, but *not* in exchange relationships (Clark, Ouellette, Powell, & Milberg, 1987; Clark & Mills, 2012). And, in general, people have been shown to respond to others' signals of need *only* when the social context motivates them to do so (Clark, Mills, & Powell, 1986; Clark & Mills, 2012). Although these effects have not been demonstrated in direct social interactions, it seems plausible that they could extend to behavioral interactions, and also to the domain of mixed-motive negotiations. Based on these arguments, we suggest that the expression of sadness will elicit favorable behavior only when social aspects of the negotiation lead recipients to act upon their other-concern.

In the current paper, we thus investigate whether sadness expression could be effective in negotiation when factors that relate to how recipients construe the social situation are likely to motivate recipients to act upon their other-concern. That is, we investigate social contexts in which recipients may have reasons to experience concern for the counterpart in the first place. In doing so, we look at both structural (Experiment 1) and relationship-related (Experiments 2-3) features of the social context. More specifically, we examine four features of the social context that might provide justifications to experience other-concern for a sad expresser, namely (a)

when recipients perceive the expresser as low-power (Experiment 1), (b) when they anticipate a future interaction with him/her (Experiment 1), (c) when they construe the relationship as collaborative in nature (Experiment 2), or (d) when they believe that it is inappropriate to blame others (Experiment 3). We argue and test whether these distinct social situations might lead recipients to act upon their other-concern for the counterpart, thus making more concessions to a counterpart who expresses sadness in negotiation. In doing so, we draw from the theory that factors in the social situation are likely to influence how recipients respond to another who expresses emotions (Elfenbein, 2007; Morris & Keltner, 2000; Van Kleef et al., 2010), that is, that the influence of emotions on behavior is context-dependent (Elfenbein, 2007; Forgas & George, 2001). Yet, we extend that perspective to the expression of sadness in negotiation. Thus, the current paper focuses on examining when aspects of the social situation may make recipients respond positively to a sad expresser in negotiation.

Overview

The current research departs from prior research on emotional expressions in negotiation (Van Kleef et al., 2004a, 2010; Van Kleef & Sinaceur, in press) in two ways. First, it focuses on a distinct emotion, namely sadness, which is one of the six original emotions classified by emotion theorists as “basic” (e.g., Ekman, 1993; Scherer & Grandjean, 2008). Second, and important in a theoretical perspective, it highlights a distinct causal mechanism (i.e., concern for the other party) behind the effect of emotional expression. Whereas prior research on emotional expressions in negotiations focused mostly on the *strategic informational inferences* that recipients make about an emotional expresser, typically the inferences regarding the expresser’s limits and toughness (Kopelman et al., 2006; Van Kleef et al., 2010; Van Kleef & De Dreu,

2010; Van Kleef & Sinaceur, in press), the current research emphasizes the importance of the recipients' *non-instrumental reactions*, namely his/her caring for others.

In emphasizing this distinct mechanism, the current research builds on social-psychological research on the effects of sadness in social life, yet extends it to the domain of conflict and negotiation. Specifically, we build on the notion that sadness can elicit greater concern for the expresser's welfare (Eisenberg et al., 1989; Eisenberg, 2000; Horstmann, 2003). In particular, observing a sad person can lead to an authentic experience in which one literally "feels for" that person (Eisenberg et al., 1989). Although our proposition that the recipient's other-concern will shape the outcomes of professional, mixed-motive interactions such as negotiations may seem provocative, it resonates with recent negotiation research that found that concern for the interests of the other party can be an important determinant of negotiators' concession-making (Amanatullah, Morris, & Curhan, 2008; DeRue, Conlon, Moon, & Willaby, 2009; Nelissen, Van Someren, & Zeelenberg, 2009; see Pruitt & Rubin, 1986). Thus, the current research departs from prior research on emotional expressions in negotiation (e.g., Van Kleef et al., 2004a, 2004b, 2010; Van Kleef & De Dreu, 2010; Van Kleef & Sinaceur, in press) by examining the effectiveness of an emotional strategy that relies on the other's benevolence rather than conveying toughness or strength.

The Present Studies

To test our argument that sadness expression could have positive effects in negotiations, we conducted three experiments. In all three experiments, we manipulated sadness expression and the recipients' construal of the social situation orthogonally using fully-crossed, factorial designs. We expected that sadness would increase concessions only among those recipients who have reasons to experience concern for the expresser in the first place. Indeed, we proposed that,

only when their construal of the social situation provides reasons to experience concern for the expresser, will recipients act upon their other-concern and concede more to a sad expresser. Thus, all three experiments investigated features of the social situation that may provide reasons to experience other-concern for the expresser. Experiment 1 looked at structural features of the social situation, while Experiments 2-3 looked at relationship-related features. More specifically, we examined (a) when recipients perceived the expresser as low-power (Experiment 1), (b) when recipients anticipated a future interaction with him/her (Experiment 1), (c) when recipients construed the relationship as collaborative in nature (Experiment 2), or (d) when recipients believed that it was inappropriate to blame others (Experiment 3). Finally, in Experiments 1-2 we examined the effectiveness of sadness expression by comparing it to more neutral expressions, whereas in Experiment 3 we made a comparison of sadness to anger to directly document that sadness is distinct from anger.

All three experiments used a face-to-face negotiation paradigm where participants actually interacted with each other. Indeed, we wanted to allow for mundane realism (consistent with Overbeck, Neale, & Govan, 2010; Sinaceur & Tiedens, 2006; Sinaceur et al., 2011; see Kopelman et al., 2006; O'Connor, Arnold, & Maurizio, 2010; Wang et al., 2012). We thought that this was important because studies have rarely investigated effects of emotional expressions using actual, face-to-face negotiations. Further, in all three experiments, we investigated the causal mechanism of other-concern for the positive effect of sadness expression. We theorized that, when the social context is relevant, sadness expression would elicit more concessions from recipients because recipients would then feel greater concern for the expresser.

Thus, each of our three studies had the following features: (a) they all examined actual, face-to-face interactions between negotiators; (b) they all investigated features of the social

situation that could provide recipients with reasons to act upon their other-concern for a sad expresser; and (c) they all tested whether the positive effect of sadness expression on value claiming would be mediated by the recipients' greater other-concern.

Experiment 1: Sadness and Structural Features of the Social Situation

In Experiment 1, we examined two *structural* factors about how recipients construe the social situation and that might potentially provide them with reasons for acting upon their other-concern for a sad expresser. Specifically, Experiment 1 focused on (a) how recipients perceived the expresser's power to be and (b) whether recipients anticipated a future interaction with him/her. We first turn toward these factors because they both are structural elements of social situations as well as critical determinants of people's behavior in negotiation. Indeed, power is often noted as an important factor in determining the bargaining strategies of negotiating parties (e.g., Bacharach & Lawler, 1981; DeRue et al., 2009; Pinkley, 1995). Further, this factor often drives how negotiators respond to another's emotional expressions (e.g., Overbeck et al., 2010; Sinaceur & Tiedens, 2006; Van Kleef & Côté, 2007; Van Kleef et al., 2006b; Wang et al., 2012). In addition, although relatively less studied, the presence of a future interaction is also a structural factor that importantly affects negotiation behavior (e.g., Ben-Yoav & Pruitt, 1984; Pruitt & Rubin, 1986). Specifically, this factor can make negotiators more cooperative by providing an incentive to feel concern for the other and fostering solidarity (e.g., Ben-Yoav & Pruitt, 1984; Heide & Miner, 1992). Indeed, it is a potent condition for prosocial behavior (De Dreu, Nijstad & Van Knippenberg, 2008). Thus, both power and future interaction are structural factors that might importantly affect how recipients respond to a counterpart's signals of need and helplessness, such as when s/he expresses sadness.

Expressers' perceived power. Looking first at the potential role of power as a structural feature of the social situation, we propose that recipients should respond positively to another expressing sadness when s/he is perceived as powerless already, but not so when s/he is perceived as powerful already. In doing so, we follow Bacharach and Lawler's (1981) definition of power as experienced dependence on versus independence from other individuals. Indeed, recipients should act upon their other-concern and benevolently help a sad expresser when that expresser is perceived as powerless and dependent, thus in need, as they have a reason to do so then (i.e., other-concern makes sense then) – but there's no such reason if the expresser is perceived as powerful and not dependent, thus not in need. In other words, recipients will pay attention to an expresser's signal of need and dependency (e.g., Clark & Taraban, 1991; Eisenberg, 2000; Scherer & Grandjean, 2008) only when that signal makes sense based on their own perceptions of the expresser's actual power and dependence. Our prediction is consistent with recent evidence that facing completely defenseless others (i.e., such as sad, low-power expressers) increases one's sense of social responsibility and concession-making (Handgraaf, Van Dijk, Vermunt, Wilke, & De Dreu, 2008). It is further consistent with other evidence that appeals to recipients' empathy and compassion are effective for low-power negotiators, but *not* for high-power negotiators (Shirako, 2010). Drawing from these arguments and prior research, we expect sad expressers to obtain more concessions in negotiations *only* when they are perceived as powerless already.

Anticipated future interaction. Looking at the potential role of future interaction as another structural feature of the social situation, we propose that recipients should respond positively to another expressing sadness only when they anticipate a future interaction. Indeed, recipients should act upon their other-concern when they anticipate a future interaction as they

have a motivation to do so then – but there’s no such motivation if no future interaction is anticipated. Consistent with our argument, exchange theorists have advanced that expressing sadness is particularly suited to relations that are characterized by high cohesion and long-term solidarity (Lawler & Thye, 1999), such as those relations in which there is a future. Consistent with these ideas, prior research has shown that anticipating a future interaction can induce concern for the other, thus greater acquiescence (Ben-Yoav & Pruitt, 1984). Indeed, anticipating a future interaction makes experiencing concern for the other more consequential because, then, establishing a good working relationship is important (Pruitt & Carnevale, 1993). In particular, a future interaction encourages the acceptance of influence attempts by others (Pallak & Heller, 1971). But, it does so only when the counterpart is perceived as dependent and needing support (Marlowe, Gergen, & Doob, 1966), such as when s/he expresses sadness (e.g., Clark & Taraban, 1991; Eisenberg, 2000; Scherer & Grandjean, 2008). Drawing from these arguments and prior research, we expect sad expressers to obtain more concessions in negotiations *only* when recipients anticipate a future interaction.

Overview

Using face-to-face negotiations, Experiment 1 examined two structural factors about how recipients construe the social situation and that might provide them with reasons for acting upon their other-concern for a sad expresser. Specifically, it investigated the effects of sadness expression when recipients perceived the expresser as low-power and when recipients anticipated a future interaction, respectively. It also explored why each of these two effects occurred by testing the mediating role of experienced concern for the expresser.

Method

Participants

Two-hundred thirty-two Master in Management students (143 female, 89 male) participated in the study for course credit. They were enrolled in a business negotiations course at a French University. Participants were randomly assigned into 116 dyads. Most participants (89.2%) were French, whereas some were not (10.8%). We controlled for participants' culture and gender in all analyses. However, not including those as controls did not change any of the results reported below.

Experimental Design

Dyads were randomly assigned to one of eight experimental conditions in a 2 (Emotion Expression: Sadness Expression vs. Neutral Expression) x 2 (Recipients' perception of the expresser's power: Low vs. High) x 2 (Recipients' anticipating a future interaction: Yes vs. No) factorial, between-subject design. Dyads were randomly assigned to the experimental conditions according to a double-blind procedure in which neither the participants nor the experimenter knew to which condition each dyad was assigned. In each dyad, one participant was randomly assigned to being the expresser and the other to being the recipient.

Materials

Negotiation exercise. Participants role-played a two-party negotiation exercise (adapted from Sinaceur, 2010; see also Sinaceur et al., 2011). Participants were randomly assigned to either one of two equal-power roles in negotiating a new business venture. This negotiation was between two firms (PharmaLab and BioHealth) who were considering setting up a venture to develop, manufacture and market a new drug in common. Both prior research (Sinaceur, 2010) and pre-testing showed that role did not affect negotiation outcomes; indeed, it did not, so this factor is not discussed further. Participants kept their materials confidential. The negotiation was conducted face-to-face.

The negotiation was about the terms of the prospective business venture and included four issues: profit sharing, manufacturing facilities, R&D investment, and sales coverage. Payoff schedules for each role specified the point values that participants could reach on each issue, as can be seen in the Appendix. Two issues were distributive (i.e., the parties' preferences were in complete opposition): profit sharing and sales coverage. And two issues were integrative (i.e., one party cared more about two issues and the other party more about the other two issues, which made trading-off possible to increase joint gain): manufacturing facilities and R&D investment. This payoff structure is consistent with previous research (e.g., De Dreu, Beersma, Stroebe, & Euwema, 2006; De Dreu, Koole, & Steinel, 2000; Kray, Reb, Galinsky, & Thompson, 2004). Across conditions, all participants were told their goal was to maximize their own points: the more they earned, the better for them.

Manipulation of sadness expression. To manipulate sadness expression, we drew from successful manipulations of emotional expressions from past research (Sinaceur & Tiedens, 2006; Sinaceur et al., 2011; see Kopelman et al., 2006). In each dyad, one participant was randomly assigned to being the expresser. Along with their payoff information, these participants were given a set of negotiation recommendations that was adapted from prior research (Kopelman et al., 2006; Sinaceur & Tiedens, 2006; Sinaceur et al., 2011). In order to create consistency across the two emotion conditions, participants in both the neutral and sadness conditions were told they needed to use their emotions to successfully negotiate and obtain concessions. And, all participants were told that they should follow the advice of experts. However, the two emotion conditions varied in terms of what these experts recommended. In the emotion neutral condition ($N = 59$) participants were advised to hide their emotions. They were given a set of recommendations about how to control their emotions, such as staying calm,

keeping a poker face, and keeping their voice steady (same emotion neutral condition as in Sinaceur & Tiedens, 2006 and Kopelman et al., 2006). In the sadness condition ($N = 56$) participants were advised to express sadness. They were given a set of recommendations about expressing sadness such as using vocal expressions (i.e., softening their voice, sighing; these cues were drawn from prior research on sadness expression, e.g., Banse & Scherer, 1996; Guerrero & Floyd, 2006; Siegman & Boyle, 1993; Shaver et al., 1987; Pittam & Scherer, 1993; Planalp, 1999), physical expressions (i.e., looking down, taking a gloomy look; these cues were drawn from prior research on sadness expression, e.g., Ekman & Friesen, 1975; Guerrero & Floyd, 2006; Izard, Hembree, Dougherty, & Spizzirri, 1983; Planalp, 1999; Shaver et al., 1987), and to use sentences to communicate sadness (e.g., “This negotiation really makes me sad”, “This almost brings tears to my eyes. I feel miserable”). Recipients were not given any emotion instructions.

Manipulation of the counterpart's perceived power. Along with their payoff information, recipients were given information regarding their counterpart's (i.e., the expresser's) power. Our manipulation of the counterpart's power was consistent with how prior negotiation research manipulated power (e.g., Overbeck et al., 2010; Sinaceur & Tiedens, 2006; Sinaceur et al., 2011; Van Kleef & Côté, 2007; Van Kleef et al., 2006b; see Bacharach & Lawler, 1981). In the low-power expresser condition ($N = 60$), recipients were told their counterpart was in a catastrophic financial situation and that s/he had absolutely no alternative to the current negotiation in that s/he could not reach any agreement with another firm. Thus, the counterpart's bargaining power was very low. In the high-power expresser condition ($N = 55$), recipients were told their counterpart was in an excellent financial situation and that s/he had an excellent alternative to the current negotiation in that s/he could reach an excellent agreement with another firm. Thus, the

counterpart's bargaining power was very high. Expressers (sadness and neutral) were not given any power information.

Manipulation of anticipated future interaction. Crossed with power, recipients were also given information regarding future interaction. In the future interaction condition ($N = 62$), recipients were told there were many businesses they and their counterpart could negotiate upon in the future. It was possible to contemplate deals on other drugs in the future. Thus, the long term was very important in this negotiation. In the no future interaction condition ($N = 53$), recipients were told there were no other business they and their counterpart could negotiate upon in the future. No deals on other drugs were to be contemplated in the future. Thus, the long term was not important at all in this negotiation. Expressers (sadness and neutral) were not given any future interaction information.

Procedure

Participants had 25 minutes to read their instructions and prepare for the negotiation. Then, they were given 25 minutes to negotiate face-to-face in dyads.

Outcomes

After negotiating, participants indicated the agreement they had reached, if any. One impasse occurred and was excluded when analyzing outcomes (e.g., see Kray et al., 2004). Participants' points were computed according to the payoff schedules.

Measures

Following the negotiation, participants assessed their perceptions on 7-point Likert scales (1 = *little* to 7 = *very much*).

Other-concern for the expresser. Other-concern experienced by recipients was the hypothesized mediator of the positive effect of sadness expression on value claiming. To

measure other-concern, we drew from past research on effects of sadness expression in social life. In particular, past research has shown that sadness expression has the effect of eliciting reactions of empathy and compassion for the expresser as well as recognizing the expresser's need for one's help (Eisenberg et al., 1989; Horstmann, 2003; Small & Verrochi, 2009; see also Clark & Taraban, 1991; Eisenberg, 2000; Graham et al., 2008; Scherer & Grandjean, 2008). Thus, we combined measures of these constructs, namely reactions of empathy, compassion, and recognizing the expresser's need for one's help, into a reliable, single scale. Specifically, we measured other-concern by combining the following three items: "How much did you think that your counterpart was deserving compassion?", "How much empathy did you feel for your counterpart?", and "How much did you think that your counterpart needed your help?" These items were averaged into a single index (Cronbach's $\alpha = .79$). A confirmatory factor analysis showed that these items loaded on one factor (it yielded only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1, i.e., 2.10, which explained 70.17% of the total variance; also, all items loaded positively on that factor with all factor loadings l 's $> .76$).

Sadness expression manipulation check. To check the effectiveness of the sadness expression manipulation, we asked recipients to rate how much their counterpart had expressed sadness using three items ("Did your counterpart express sadness during the negotiation?", "Did your counterpart express sorrow during the negotiation?", and "Did your counterpart express grief during the negotiation?"). These were averaged into a single index (Cronbach's $\alpha = .93$).

Counterpart's power manipulation check. To check the effectiveness of the counterpart's power manipulation, we asked recipients to rate how much bargaining power their counterpart had ("How much bargaining power did the counterpart have?").

Anticipation of future interaction check. To check the effectiveness of the future interaction manipulation, we asked recipients to rate how important the future was in this negotiation using two items (“How important was the long term in this negotiation?” and “Could the current negotiation lead to other deals in the future?”). These were averaged into a single index (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .93$).

Results

Unless otherwise noted, data were analyzed using a fully-crossed, three-way 2 (Emotion Expression: Sadness Expression vs. Neutral Expression) x 2 (Recipients’ perception of the expresser’s power: Low vs. High) x 2 (Recipients’ anticipating a future interaction: Yes vs. No) ANCOVA design, controlling for gender and culture. However, not including gender and culture as controls did not change any of the results reported below. Pairwise contrasts across emotion conditions were used to test our specific predictions.

Manipulation checks

Sadness expression. A 2 x 2 x 2 ANCOVA showed that recipients in the sadness expression condition rated their counterpart as expressing more sadness ($M = 3.72, SD = 1.82$) than did recipients in the emotion neutral condition ($M = 1.57, SD = .96; F(1, 115) = 59.19, p < .0001, \eta^2 = .36$). The ANCOVA showed no other main or interaction effects, which indicates that our sadness manipulation was not inadvertently affected by the manipulations of the other two factors.

Expresser’s power. A 2 x 2 x 2 ANCOVA showed that recipients in the low-power expresser condition rated their counterpart as having less bargaining power ($M = 2.41, SD = 1.48$) than did recipients in the high-power expresser condition ($M = 5.61, SD = 1.46; F(1, 115) = 123.41, p < .0001, \eta^2 = .54$). The ANCOVA showed no other main or interaction effects.

Anticipation of future interaction. A 2 x 2 x 2 ANCOVA showed that recipients in the future interaction condition thought the future was more important ($M = 5.66$, $SD = 1.26$) than did recipients in the no future interaction condition ($M = 1.67$, $SD = 1.02$; $F(1, 113) = 312.76$, $p < .0001$, $\eta^2 = .75$). The ANCOVA showed no other main or interaction effects.

Value claiming

Value claiming was the percentage of the total points that one party got for himself or herself. A 2 x 2 x 2 ANCOVA showed a main effect for the perceived expresser's power, such that expressers perceived as high-power claimed more value ($M = 50.02\%$, $SD = 5.09\%$) than did expressers perceived as low-power ($M = 48.10\%$, $SD = 5.34\%$; $F(1, 114) = 3.88$, $p = .05$, $\eta^2 = .04$). This main effect of perceptions of the expresser's power is consistent with prior research on power in negotiations (e.g., Overbeck et al., 2010; Pinkley, 1995; Sinaceur & Tiedens, 2006; Van Kleef & Côté, 2007; Van Kleef et al., 2004b; Van Kleef et al., 2006b).

Supporting our theory, we also found a Power x Sadness expression interaction ($F(1, 114) = 4.11$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .04$). Specifically, when recipients perceived the expresser as low-power, sad expressers claimed more value ($M = 49.81\%$, $SD = 6.20\%$) than did neutral ($M = 46.43\%$, $SD = 4.06\%$; $F(1, 59) = 6.28$, $p < .02$, $\eta^2 = .11$). But among recipients who perceived the expresser as high-power, there was no significant difference between sad expressers ($M = 49.36\%$, $SD = 6.11\%$) and neutral expressers ($M = 50.52\%$, $SD = 4.12\%$; $F(1, 54) = .64$, $p > .42$, *ns*). Thus, sadness expression was only effective among recipients who perceived the expresser as low-power.

Supporting our second hypothesis, we also found a Future x Sadness expression interaction ($F(1, 114) = 8.43$, $p < .005$, $\eta^2 = .08$). Specifically, when recipients anticipated a future interaction, sad expressers claimed more value ($M = 51.39\%$, $SD = 6.08\%$) than did

neutral ($M = 47.58\%$, $SD = 4.76\%$; $F(1, 61) = 7.17$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .12$). But among recipients who anticipated no future interaction, there was no significant difference between sad expressers ($M = 47.93\%$, $SD = 5.86\%$) and neutral expressers ($M = 49.37\%$, $SD = 3.95\%$; $F(1, 52) = 1.11$, $p > .29$, *ns*). Thus, sadness expression was only effective among recipients who anticipated a future interaction. It is important to note that the ANCOVA showed no other main or interaction effects, including no three-way interaction. Overall, sadness expression increased concessions *only* among those recipients who either (a) perceived the expresser as having low-power or (b) anticipated a future interaction.

Value creation

As we used a negotiation task where there could be potential for integrative agreements, we also conducted an exploratory analysis on value creation. Value creation was measured by the total points earned by the dyad. A $2 \times 2 \times 2$ ANCOVA on value creation showed no main or interaction effects.

Other-Concern for the Expresser as a Mediator

Next, we examined whether the recipients' concern for the expresser mediated the two effects that sadness expression had on recipients who perceived the expresser as low-power or anticipated a future interaction, respectively. We followed Baron's and Kenny's (1986) procedure for each of the mediation analyses. Figures 1 and 2 present the results of the regression analyses.

Other-concern for the expresser as a mediator when expressers' power is low. First, we examined whether recipients' other-concern mediated the effect of sadness on recipients who perceived the expresser as having low-power (e.g., for a similar analysis, see Sinaceur & Tiedens, 2006; Wegener & Fabrigar, 2000). As Figure 1 indicates, regression analyses found

that recipients' other-concern mediated the effect that sadness expression had on claiming value among those recipients who perceived the expresser as having low-power. To test the significance of the indirect path (i.e., the path through the mediator), we followed a bootstrapping procedure (Preacher & Hayes, 2009). The result of 1,000 resamples demonstrated that zero fell outside of the 95% confidence interval of the indirect effect of other-concern (95% CI Low = .16; 95% CI High = 2.34).

Other-concern for the expresser as a mediator when a future interaction is anticipated.

Second, we examined whether recipients' other-concern mediated the effect of sadness on recipients who anticipated a future interaction. As Figure 2 indicates, regression analyses found that recipients' other-concern mediated the effect that sadness expression had on claiming value among those recipients who anticipated a future interaction. To test the significance of the indirect path (i.e., the path through the mediator), we followed a bootstrapping procedure (Preacher & Hayes, 2009). The result of 1,000 resamples demonstrated that zero fell outside of the 95% confidence interval of the indirect effect of other-concern (95% CI Low = .17; 95% CI High = 2.00). Overall, these results show that (a) the effect that sadness had on recipients who perceived the expresser as low-power was mediated by other-concern and (b) the effect that sadness had on recipients who anticipated a future interaction was also mediated by other-concern.

Discussion

Experiment 1 showed that sadness expression can increase value claiming in negotiations. Specifically, sadness increased concessions only among participants who: (a) perceived the opponent as having low-power; or (b) anticipated a future interaction. To our knowledge, this study is the first to document a positive effect of sadness expression in

negotiations. And, it does so by simultaneously delineating two independent boundary conditions. Further, it sheds light on a psychological mechanism, other-concern for the expresser, that mediates this effect.

In this way, Experiment 1 supported our theory that sadness expression is effective in negotiation when, but only when, a feature of the social situation provides recipients with a reason to act upon their other-concern for the expresser. In doing so, Experiment 1 had examined *structural* features of the social situation. In Experiments 2 and 3, we sought to examine *relationship-related* features of the social situation to extend the positive effect of sadness expression in negotiation.

Experiment 2: Sadness and the Nature of the Relationship

In Experiment 2, we wanted to further document that sadness expression could be effective in negotiation because of the recipients' greater concern for the expresser. Experiment 1 suggested that when recipients anticipate a future interaction, they concede more to a sad expresser. However, it remains unclear whether features of the relationship that are perhaps more social (rather than structural) would make recipients concede more to a sad expresser even when no future interaction is anticipated. After all, it is possible that recipients concede more to a sad expresser when they anticipate a future interaction because it merely makes the relationship *strategically* more important, hence because of the strategic rather than prosocial incentive it provides (e.g., the possibility of future benefits; see Axelrod, 1984; Pruitt & Rubin, 1986). Thus, we thought it was important to examine whether the *social* nature of the relationship between negotiators might make recipients concede more to a sad expresser even when no future interaction is anticipated. In particular, prior research suggests that construing the relationship as collaborative and communal rather than as exchange-based and transactional might importantly

affect recipients' reactions to a sad expresser even though the interaction entails no future (Clark et al., 1986; Clark et al., 1987; Clark & Mills, 2012). That is, the *nature* of the social relationship (collaborative vs. exchange-based) might motivate recipients to respond to others' signals of need, even in the absence of future interaction (i.e., in the absence of obvious strategic concern; see Clark et al., 1986; Clark & Mills, 2012). Thus, we suggest that recipients may have reasons to experience concern for the expresser as a result of the social relationship between them and the expresser even though there is no structural incentive provided by a future interaction. Our prediction is consistent with the general notion that conflict frames (i.e., how negotiators subjectively construe a conflict situation), such as the extent to which negotiators focus on the interpersonal dimension of the relationship, influence the process and outcome of conflict (Pinkley, 1990; Pinkley & Northcraft, 1994).

Based on these arguments, in Experiment 2, we examined whether recipients might concede more to a sad expresser when they construe the relationship between negotiators as collaborative (rather than exchange-based) *even though no future interaction is anticipated*. Thus, in Experiment 2, we made all recipients believe that no future interaction was to be anticipated and we manipulated the recipients' construal of the nature of the relationship (collaborative versus exchange-based). Further, as in Experiment 1, we tested our causal mechanism of psychological other-concern. Specifically, we examined whether the recipients' greater concern for the expresser would underlie the effect of sadness expression among those recipients who construed the negotiation as collaborative.

An additional goal of Experiment 2 was to improve our sadness and neutral manipulations. First, we wanted to improve the external validity and realistic character of our sadness manipulation. Specifically, we pilot tested and used new sentences to manipulate the

expression of sadness (i.e., the sentences that were provided as examples for the verbal part of the manipulation). Second, we wanted to improve the validity of our neutral manipulation. Indeed, our directions in the neutral condition might not have been truly neutral in Experiment 1. In particular, our directions to “use emotions” across experimental conditions may suggest that emotion is not neutral in this case but rather is present and should be utilized. Also, our neutral directions might have made participants utilize emotions through making them focus on regulating or suppressing emotions. Thus, we pilot tested and used a different neutral manipulation by not providing any information about emotions in the neutral condition, hence having a purer control condition.

Pilot Study 1

The goal of Pilot Study 1 was to improve the external validity and realistic character of the sadness manipulation. Specifically, we had participants rate both prior and new sentences to communicate sadness (i.e., sentences provided as examples in the verbal part of the manipulation) on whether these were realistic. We wanted to include in a new version of the sadness manipulation only those sentences that would be rated as realistic.

Phase 1: Generation of new sentences

Fifteen University students participated in Phase 1 of the pilot study (these participants did not participate in the other studies). Each participant was asked to generate one or two phrases that 1) would be intended to communicate sadness in a negotiation and 2) would be realistic in the context of a negotiation. Based on their responses (i.e., the most common expressions generated), we created four new sentences to communicate sadness that had not been included in the first version of the manipulation of sadness.

Phase 2: Rating of prior and new sentences

Forty-one University students participated in Phase 2 of the pilot study (these participants did not participate in the other studies). In a repeated-measures design, each participant rated a series of 15 negotiation sentences to communicate sadness: the sentences from the prior version and the four new sentences that had been generated in Phase 1.

Participants were told that the sentences were intended to communicate sadness in a negotiation. They were asked to indicate how much each of the sentences was realistic in the context of a negotiation (“Please indicate how much you find each of the sentences to be realistic in the context of a negotiation”; 1 = *little* to 7 = *a lot*).

One-sample t tests for each of the 15 sentences probed whether each sentence was seen as realistic in the context of a negotiation. These one-sample t tests showed that 9 sentences were significantly rated as realistic (as indicated by mean comparisons against the mid-point of the scale; all t 's > 2.14 , all p 's $< .04$). We therefore only used these sentences (and dropped all other sentences for which t tests were non-significant) to create a new version for the manipulation of sadness expression. Thus, the new version only included these sentences that each had been significantly rated as realistic. For example, sentences were “All of this saddens me... I feel disheartened” (prior sentence) and “What you’re saying makes me sad... I feel sorrow about the way this is going” (new sentence). Overall, the new version of the sadness manipulation included five (out of eleven) sentences from the prior version (i.e., five sentences that were the same as before) and four new sentences.

Pilot Study 2

The goal of Pilot Study 2 was to see if differences between versions of the neutral manipulation mattered. Thirty-six Executive MBAs participated in this study (these participants did not participate in the other studies). Participants were randomly assigned to either one of two

roles in a two-party, business negotiation (thus, forming 18 dyads). The negotiation was between a buyer and a seller over the sale of rerun rights for a cartoon series (e.g., Adair, Weingart, & Brett, 2007; Gunia, Brett, Nandkeolyar, & Kamdar, 2011). It included a distributive issue, two trade-off issues, and a congruent issue, which allowed us to measure both value claiming and value creation. The negotiation was conducted face-to-face.

Buyers received either one of two versions of the neutral manipulation. The first version was the same emotion neutral condition as in Experiment 1 ($N = 10$). The second version constituted a purer control condition in which no information was provided about emotions in any way ($N = 8$). In this second version, buyers were given standard negotiations advice (e.g., Swaab, Maddux, & Sinaceur, 2011) about preparing in depth for the negotiation. All sellers were also given these control instructions.

ANOVAs showed no significant differences between the two versions of the neutral manipulation for value claiming and for value creation, respectively (F 's $< .60$, p 's $> .45$). This lack of differences suggests that it would seem unlikely that the results of Experiment 1 were driven by the type of neutral condition that we used. Nonetheless, we thought it was important to further address this issue. Therefore, in Experiment 2 we included the two versions of the neutral manipulation (i.e., neutral vs. purer control).

Main Experiment

Overview

Experiment 2 examined a relationship-related feature of the social situation (rather than a more structural feature as in Experiment 1) that might provide recipients with a reason to act upon their other-concern for a sad expresser. Specifically, it investigated whether recipients might concede more to a sad expresser when they construe the relationship between negotiators

as collaborative in nature, *even though no future interaction is anticipated*. It also explored why this effect may occur by testing the mediating role of experienced concern for the expresser.

Method

Participants

One-hundred sixty-eight Master in Management students (99 female, 69 male) participated in the study for course credit. They were enrolled in a business negotiations course. Participants were randomly assigned into 84 dyads. We controlled for participants' gender in all analyses. However, not including gender as a control did not change any of the results reported below.

Experimental Design

Dyads were randomly assigned to one of four experimental conditions in a 2 (Emotion Expression: Sadness Expression vs. Neutral Expression) x 2 (Recipients' construal of the relationship: Collaborative vs. Exchange-based) factorial, between-subject design. Dyads were randomly assigned to the experimental conditions according to a double-blind procedure in which neither the participants nor the experimenter knew to which condition each dyad was assigned. In each dyad, one participant was randomly assigned to being the expresser and the other to being the recipient.

Materials

Negotiation exercise. Participants role-played the same two-party negotiation exercise as in Experiment 1 (adapted from Sinaceur, 2010; Sinaceur et al., 2011). They were randomly assigned to either one of two roles in negotiating over the same business venture. Again, the negotiation was conducted face-to-face. And, again, across conditions all participants were told their goal was to maximize their own points: the more they earned, the better for them.

Manipulation of sadness expression. To manipulate sadness expression, we used the same procedure as in Experiment 1, but improved the manipulations based on the results of the two pilot studies. Specifically, in each dyad, one participant was randomly assigned to being the expresser. Along with their payoff information, these participants were given a set of negotiation recommendations (consistent with Kopelman et al., 2006; Sinaceur & Tiedens, 2006; Sinaceur et al., 2011). These instructions could be either about expressing sadness or expressing no emotion as in Experiment 1. However, in contrast to Experiment 1, we included two versions for both the sadness and neutral manipulations.

In the *sadness* condition ($N = 45$), participants received either one of two versions of the sadness manipulation. The first version was the same as in Experiment 1 ($N = 26$). The second version was the improved version that resulted from Pilot Study 1, that is, the new version that included different, more realistic sentences to communicate sadness ($N = 19$). Thus, the difference between versions lied in the sentences used to communicate sadness, while the non-verbal expressions of sadness remained identical (e.g., Banse & Scherer, 1996; Ekman & Friesen, 1975; Planalp, 1999).

In the *neutral* condition ($N = 39$), participants received either one of two versions of the neutral manipulation. The first version was the same as in Experiment 1 ($N = 20$). The second version constituted a purer control condition in which no information was provided about emotions in any way ($N = 19$). In this second version, participants were given standard negotiations advice (e.g., Swaab et al., 2011) about preparing in depth for the negotiation (the same as in Pilot Study 2). Recipients were also given these control instructions.

Manipulation of the nature of the relationship. Along with their payoff information, recipients were given information regarding the nature of the relationship in this negotiation.

Our manipulation of the nature of the relationship drew from past research on types of relationships (e.g., Clark & Finkel, 2005; Clark & Mills, 2012; Mills, Clark, Ford, & Johnson, 2004). In the collaborative relationship condition ($N = 45$), recipients were told that the negotiation was about a *joint* venture. Thus, fostering a personal and human relationship with the other party was important. After all, negotiating was essentially about dealing with other people. Overall, the success of the negotiation primarily relied on the two parties' collaborating with each other and counting on each other. In the exchange-based relationship condition ($N = 39$), recipients were told that the negotiation was about a *business*. Thus, fostering a good transaction was important. After all, negotiating was essentially about exchanging concessions and keeping track of concessions between the parties. Overall, the success of the negotiation primarily relied on the two parties' satisfying each other's interests. Expressers (sadness and neutral) were not given any relationship information.

No future information. Across experimental conditions, all participants were told that this was a one-shot negotiation. The two parties were to negotiate over the final terms of the business, joint-venture agreement between the two firms. No deals on other drugs were to be contemplated in the future. Thus, the future was not important in this negotiation.

Procedure

As in Experiment 1, participants had 25 minutes to read their instructions and prepare for the negotiation. Then, they were given 25 minutes to negotiate face-to-face in dyads.

Outcomes

Value claiming and value creation were measured the same way as in Experiment 1.

Measures

Following the negotiation, participants assessed their perceptions on 7-point Likert scales (1 = *little* to 7 = *very much*).

Other-concern for the expresser. Other-concern was the hypothesized mediator of the positive effect of sadness expression on value claiming among those recipients who construed the relationship as collaborative. We measured the recipients' other-concern using a combination of items similar to those that were used in Experiment 1 and some new items to ensure that our mediation for sadness expression was not limited to one particular set of items. Two items were similar to those before (i.e., "How much did you think that your counterpart needed your help?"; "How much did your counterpart express the need to be helped?") and two items were new (i.e., "Did you feel socially responsible to help your counterpart?"; "How much did you think that your counterpart needed your support?"). In this way, we operationalized other-concern as recognizing that the expresser might need one's help (Eisenberg et al., 1989; Horstmann, 2003; Small & Verrochi, 2009) or one's support (Yik & Russell, 1999; Scherer & Grandjean, 2008), consistent with prior research on sadness. The four items were averaged into a single index (Cronbach's $\alpha = .81$). A confirmatory factor analysis verified that these items loaded on one factor (it yielded only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1, i.e., 2.58, which explained 64.43% of the total variance; also, all items loaded positively on that factor with all factor loadings $l's > .62$).

Sadness expression manipulation check. To check the effectiveness of the sadness expression manipulation, we used the same three items as in Experiment 1. These were averaged into a single index (Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$).

Nature of the relationship manipulation check. To check the effectiveness of the manipulation about the nature of the relationship, we asked recipients to rate how important the

personal and human dimension was in the relationship with the other party (“How important was the personal and human dimension in the relationship with the other party?”).

No future check. To check that the no future information was understood as intended, we finally asked recipients to rate how important the future was in this negotiation (“How important was the future in this negotiation?”).

Results

Unless otherwise noted, data were analyzed using a fully-crossed, two-way 2 (Emotion Expression: Sadness Expression vs. Neutral Expression) x 2 (Recipients’ construal of the relationship: Collaborative vs. Exchange-based) ANCOVA design, controlling for gender. However, not including gender as a control did not change any of the results reported below. Pairwise contrasts across emotion conditions were used to test our specific predictions.

Differences between the Versions of the Manipulations

We first examined differences between the two versions of the sadness (i.e., prior vs. improved version) and neutral (i.e., neutral vs. purer control) manipulations for all dependent measures to see if the versions mattered. Specifically, we did so for the sadness manipulation check, the nature of the relationship manipulation check, the no future check, value claiming, value creation, and other-concern. There were no differences between the two versions of the sadness and neutral manipulations. Based on that, we collapsed the two versions of the sadness and neutral conditions in subsequent analyses.

To further ensure the robustness of our results, we nonetheless ran all subsequent analyses both a) without and b) with controlling for the differences between the versions. In all analyses, the effect of our manipulated variables remained the same when controlling for the differences between the versions. We report below results where we controlled for the

differences between versions throughout all analyses. However, it is important to note that not controlling for the differences between versions did not change any of the results reported below.

Checks

Sadness expression. A 2 x 2 ANCOVA showed that recipients in the sadness condition rated their counterpart as expressing more sadness ($M = 3.21$, $SD = 1.85$) than did recipients in the neutral condition ($M = 1.81$, $SD = .91$; $F(1, 75) = 16.38$, $p < .0005$, $\eta^2 = .18$). The ANCOVA showed no other main or interaction effects.

Nature of the relationship. A 2 x 2 ANCOVA showed that recipients in the collaborative relationship condition thought that the personal and human dimension in the relationship was more important ($M = 5.53$, $SD = 1.32$) than did recipients in the exchange-based relationship condition ($M = 4.57$, $SD = 1.45$; $F(1, 74) = 9.89$, $p < .005$, $\eta^2 = .12$). The ANCOVA showed no other main or interaction effects. Thus, we conclude that our two factors were successfully manipulated.

No future. To check the effectiveness of our no future instructions, we conducted a one-sample t test. This showed that recipients thought that the future was relatively not important (as indicated by a mean comparison against the mid-point of the scale; $t(82) = 3.69$, $p < .0005$).

Value claiming

Value claiming was the percentage of the total points that one party got for himself or herself. A 2 x 2 ANCOVA was conducted on value claiming. Supporting our theory, we found a Nature of the relationship x Sadness expression interaction ($F(1, 75) = 8.69$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .10$). Specifically, when recipients construed the relationship as collaborative, sad expressers claimed more value ($M = 50.88\%$, $SD = 3.50\%$) than did neutral expressers ($M = 48.05\%$, $SD = 3.09\%$; $F(1, 40) = 6.99$, $p = .012$, $\eta^2 = .15$). But among recipients who construed the relationship as

exchange-based, there was no significant difference between sad expressers ($M = 47.40\%$, $SD = 3.87\%$) and neutral expressers ($M = 49.11\%$, $SD = 3.89\%$; $F(1, 34) = 1.77$, $p > .19$, *ns*). It is important to note that the ANCOVA showed no other effects. Overall, sadness expression was *only* effective among those recipients who construed the relationship as collaborative.

Value creation

We also conducted an exploratory analysis on value creation (the total points earned by the dyad). A 2 x 2 ANCOVA on value creation showed no main or interaction effects.

Other-Concern for the Expresser as a Mediator

Next, we examined whether recipients' other-concern for the expresser mediated the positive effect that sadness expression had on recipients who construed the relationship as collaborative (e.g., see Wegener & Fabrigar, 2000). We followed Baron's and Kenny's (1986) procedure for mediation analysis. Figure 3 presents the results of the regression analyses.

As Figure 3 indicates, regression analyses found that recipients' other-concern mediated the effect that sadness expression had on claiming value among those recipients who construed the relationship as collaborative. To test the significance of the indirect path (i.e., the path through the mediator), we followed a bootstrapping procedure (Preacher & Hayes, 2009). The result of 1,000 resamples demonstrated that zero fell outside of the 95% confidence interval of the indirect effect of other-concern (95% CI Low = .08; 95% CI High = 1.32). Thus, these analyses showed that recipients' other-concern mediated the positive effect that sadness had on recipients who construed the relationship as collaborative.

Discussion

As in Experiment 1, sadness expression was effective only when a feature of the social situation provided recipients with a reason to act upon their other-concern for the expresser – in

this case, the social nature of the relationship. Again, as in Experiment 1, the recipients' greater other-concern mediated the positive effect that sadness expression had on claiming value. Finally, these results held when controlling for the differences between the versions of the sadness and neutral manipulations. Thus, Experiment 2 expanded the prior experiment by further supporting our theory that the social context in which the expression of sadness takes place constitutes a critical boundary condition for the counter-intuitive, positive effect of sadness to occur in negotiations.

Experiment 3: Sadness Has a Differentiated Effect from Anger

In Experiment 3, we wanted to further investigate the effectiveness of sadness expression in negotiation. Specifically, we wanted to provide evidence that, not only it can be more effective than neutral expression, but that it is also distinct from anger expression. We thought that this was important because most prior research on emotional expressions in negotiation has focused on anger, documenting that anger is generally an effective strategy for value claiming (Van Kleef et al., 2010). Therefore, we wanted to document that sadness differs from anger and that it could have a differentiated effect in negotiation. Experiment 1 indirectly suggested that this was the case since we found that sadness was effective only in *low*-power situations, whereas prior research has shown that anger is effective only in *high*-power situations (e.g., Sinaceur & Tiedens, 2006; Van Kleef et al., 2006b; Van Kleef & Côté, 2007). The results of Experiment 2 were also consistent with the idea that sadness differs from anger in that sadness was only effective in a collaborative relationship, which arguably is a *cooperative*-like setting (Clark et al., 1986, 1987; Clark & Mills, 2012), whereas prior research has consistently shown that anger is *not* effective in cooperative-like settings (but only in competitive-like settings; Van Kleef and colleagues, 2004a, 2006b, 2010, in press). Hence, both Experiments 1 and 2 indirectly

suggested that sadness has a differentiated effect from anger in negotiation. Nonetheless, in Experiment 3, we wanted to more directly document that sadness has a differentiated effect from anger in negotiation. Therefore, in Experiment 3, we made a direct comparison of sadness to anger.

One important difference between sadness and anger lies in their differentiated appraisals. In particular, these two emotions differ based on how the appraisal of blame is built into them: sadness implies that there is a lack of blaming behavior, whereas anger implies blaming behavior (e.g., Elfenbein, 2007; Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Frijda, 1986; Smith et al., 1993). Indeed, sadness arises when one experiences low coping potential. Expressions of sadness therefore signal appraisals of helplessness, thus little blaming of others. In contrast, anger arises when a person's goals are being frustrated and s/he blames someone else for it. Expressions of anger therefore signal aggression, thus appraisals of other-blame (e.g., Elfenbein, 2007; Van Kleef et al., 2010). Hence, sadness involves little blaming of others, whereas anger involves much blaming of others. This difference in other-blame is so essential that other-blame has been deemed the "core relational theme" of anger (Smith et al., 1993, p. 918). This, in turn, suggests that the extent to which it is appropriate to blame others for the conflict is likely to moderate the effect of sadness versus anger on recipients' behavior. When it is not appropriate to blame others for the conflict, sadness is likely to be more effective than anger. But, when it is appropriate to do so, sadness is unlikely to be more effective. Indeed, recipients' behavior is likely to be influenced by whether they appreciate the appraisal (i.e., lack of blame) that is conveyed by sadness (Elfenbein, 2007, p. 331). While this prediction directly draws from the appraisal theory of emotions (Elfenbein, 2007; Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003; Smith et al., 1993), it is also consistent with the notion that whether to blame the other party or not is an essential

dimension of conflict (e.g., see Pinkley & Northcraft, 1994) as well as with the notion that social norms about the appropriateness of emotional expressions influence recipients' reactions (Adam, Shirako, & Maddux, 2010; Van Kleef & Côté, 2007).

Based on this line of argumentation, in Experiment 3, we examined whether sadness expression would elicit greater concessions than anger expression when it is not appropriate to blame others. As in Experiments 1-2, we also tested the mediating mechanism of psychological other-concern. Specifically, we examined whether the recipients' greater concern for the expresser would underlie the positive effect of sadness expression among those recipients who construed that blame was not appropriate in the social situation.

Method

Participants

One-hundred twenty-two Master's students of management, sciences, and social sciences (55 female, 67 male) participated in the study. Participants were randomly assigned into 61 dyads. We controlled for participants' gender in all analyses. However, not including gender as a control did not change any of the results reported below.

Experimental Design

Dyads were randomly assigned to one of four experimental conditions in a 2 (Emotion Expression: Sadness Expression vs. Anger Expression) x 2 (Recipients' belief regarding blame: Appropriate vs. Inappropriate) factorial, between-subject design. Dyads were randomly assigned to the experimental conditions according to a double-blind procedure in which neither the participants nor the experimenter knew to which condition each dyad was assigned. In each dyad, one participant was randomly assigned to being the expresser and the other to being the recipient.

Materials

Negotiation exercise. Participants role-played the same business venture, negotiation exercise as in Experiments 1 and 2, with the following exception. The payoff schedules for each role ascribed up to 8,000 points (instead of up to 6,000 points as before) to the distributive issue of profit sharing. Note that this variation made the negotiation slightly more competitive, which provided a slightly more conservative test of our hypothesis about effects of sadness versus anger since anger has been shown to be most effective in competitive settings (Van Kleef et al. 2010). With that exception, the negotiation was identical to the one used in Experiments 1 and 2. Again, the negotiation was conducted face-to-face. And, again, across conditions all participants were told their goal was to maximize their own points: the more they earned, the better for them.

Manipulation of sadness expression. We manipulated emotional expressions using the same procedure as before. However, there were two changes of importance. First, the manipulation of sadness expression was the improved version that was used in Experiment 2 (which resulted from Pilot Study 1), thus including different, more realistic sentences.

Second, the other emotion condition was anger expression (instead of neutral expression or control as before). Participants in the anger expression condition were given the same manipulation that was used successfully in past research on anger in face-to-face, negotiated interactions (Sinaceur & Tiedens, 2006; Sinaceur et al., 2011; see Kopelman et al., 2006), which yielded results similar to those of other procedures (Van Kleef et al., 2010). Specifically, participants in the anger condition were given a set of negotiation recommendations in exactly the same way as in the sadness condition. However, the content of the recommendations varied. In the anger condition, participants were given a set of recommendations about expressing anger such as using facial expressions (i.e., frowning, loud voice), physical expressions (e.g., banging

their fist on the table), and to use sentences to communicate anger (e.g., “This negotiation really makes me angry”, “You’re beginning to get on my nerves”). Note that the sentences used were consistent with those by Van Kleef and colleagues (e.g., 2004a, 2004b, 2006b; Van Kleef & De Dreu, 2010). Cell sizes were similar across conditions ($N = 29$ for sadness, $N = 32$ for anger). Recipients were not given any emotion instructions.

Manipulation of recipients’ belief regarding blame. Along with their payoff information, recipients were given information regarding social norms for blaming others in negotiation. Our manipulation of the recipients’ belief regarding the appropriateness of blame was consistent with how past negotiation research manipulated social norms (e.g., Adam et al., 2010; Van Kleef & Côté, 2007). In the inappropriate blame condition ($N = 30$), recipients were told that, while disagreements were normal and common in negotiations, it was inappropriate for people to blame others. In case there were disagreements, the counterpart should not hold them responsible or accuse them for the disagreements. It would be legitimate for recipients to find a counterpart’s blame and accusations to be improper. Thus, a counterpart’s blaming others was inappropriate in this negotiation. In the appropriate blame condition ($N = 31$), recipients were told that, since disagreements were normal and common in negotiations, it was appropriate for people to blame others. In case there were disagreements, the counterpart could hold them responsible or accuse them for the disagreements. It would be legitimate for a counterpart to express blame and harshly say how they feel. Thus, a counterpart’s blaming others was appropriate in this negotiation. Expressers (sadness and anger) were not given any blame information.

Procedure

As in Experiments 1-2, participants had 25 minutes to read their instructions and prepare for the negotiation. Then, they were given 25 minutes to negotiate face-to-face in dyads.

Outcomes

Value claiming and value creation were measured the same way as in Experiments 1-2.

Measures

Following the negotiation, participants assessed their perceptions on 7-point Likert scales (1 = *little* to 7 = *very much*).

Other-concern for the expresser. Other-concern experienced by recipients was the hypothesized mediator of the positive effect of sadness expression on value claiming among those recipients who construed blame as inappropriate. We measured other-concern using a combination of items similar to those that were used in Experiments 1-2 and some new items to again ensure that our mediation for sadness expression was not limited to one particular set of items. Three items were similar to those used before (i.e., “Did you feel socially responsible to help your counterpart?”; “How much was your counterpart eliciting compassion?”; “How much did you feel that the other was in need?”) and two items were new (i.e., “Did you feel genuinely responsible for the counterpart’s welfare?”; “How much benevolence did you feel toward your counterpart?”). These five items were averaged into a single index (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .78$). A confirmatory factor analysis verified that these items loaded on one factor (it yielded only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than 1, i.e., 2.65, which explained 53.00% of the total variance; also, all items loaded positively on that factor with all factor loadings l ’s $> .61$).

Sadness expression manipulation check. To check the effectiveness of the sadness expression manipulation, we asked recipients to rate how much their counterpart had communicated sadness using two items (“Did your counterpart express sadness during the

negotiation?", "Did your counterpart appear sad during the negotiation?"). These were averaged into a single index (Cronbach's $\alpha = .76$).

Anger expression manipulation check. To check the effectiveness of the anger expression manipulation, we asked recipients to rate how much their counterpart had communicated anger using two items ("Did your counterpart express anger during the negotiation?", "Did your counterpart appear angry during the negotiation?"). These were averaged into a single index (Cronbach's $\alpha = .84$).

Blame inappropriateness check. To check the effectiveness of the blame appropriateness manipulation, we finally asked recipients to rate how appropriate it was for the counterpart to blame them ("How much appropriate was it for your counterpart to blame you?").

Results

Unless otherwise noted, data were analyzed using a fully-crossed, two-way 2 (Emotion Expression: Sadness Expression vs. Anger Expression) x 2 (Recipients' belief regarding blame: Appropriate vs. Inappropriate) ANCOVA design, controlling for gender. However, not including gender as a control did not change any of the results reported below. Pairwise contrasts across emotion conditions were used to test our specific predictions.

Manipulation checks

Sadness expression. A 2 x 2 ANCOVA showed that recipients in the sadness condition rated their counterpart as communicating more sadness ($M = 2.75$, $SD = 1.85$) than did recipients in the anger condition ($M = 1.77$, $SD = .97$; $F(1, 56) = 6.52$, $p < .02$, $\eta^2 = .10$). The ANCOVA showed no other main or interaction effects.

Anger expression. A 2 x 2 ANCOVA showed that recipients in the anger condition rated their counterpart as communicating more anger ($M = 2.98$, $SD = 1.87$) than did recipients in the

sadness condition ($M = 2.07$, $SD = 1.15$; $F(1, 56) = 4.93$, $p = .03$, $\eta^2 = .08$). The ANCOVA showed no other main or interaction effects.

Blame inappropriateness. A 2 x 2 ANCOVA showed that recipients in the blame inappropriate condition thought it was less appropriate for the counterpart to blame them ($M = 2.68$, $SD = 1.71$) than did recipients in the blame appropriate condition ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 1.77$; $F(1, 56) = 9.83$, $p < .005$, $\eta^2 = .15$). The ANCOVA showed no other main or interaction effects. Thus, we conclude that our two factors were successfully manipulated.

Value claiming

Value claiming was the percentage of the total points that one party got for himself or herself. A 2 x 2 ANCOVA was conducted on value claiming. Supporting our theory, we found a Blame Inappropriate x Sadness expression interaction ($F(1, 56) = 5.67$, $p = .021$, $\eta^2 = .09$). Specifically, when recipients construed blame as inappropriate, sad expressers claimed more value ($M = 54.21\%$, $SD = 7.39\%$) than did angry expressers ($M = 47.98\%$, $SD = 5.91\%$; $F(1, 27) = 6.33$, $p < .02$, $\eta^2 = .19$). But among recipients who construed blame as appropriate, there was no significant difference between sad expressers ($M = 49.68\%$, $SD = 3.23\%$) and angry expressers ($M = 50.62\%$, $SD = 5.99\%$; $F(1, 28) = .26$, $p > .61$, *ns*). It is important to note that the ANCOVA showed no other effects. Overall, sadness expression was *only* effective among those recipients who construed blame as inappropriate.

Value creation

We also conducted an exploratory analysis on value creation (the total points earned by the dyad). A 2 x 2 ANCOVA on value creation showed no main or interaction effects.

Other-Concern for the Expresser as a Mediator

Next, we examined whether recipients' other-concern for the expresser mediated the positive effect that sadness expression had on recipients who construed blame as inappropriate (e.g., see Wegener & Fabrigar, 2000). We followed Baron's and Kenny's (1986) procedure for mediation analysis. Figure 4 presents the results of the regression analyses.

As Figure 4 indicates, regression analyses found that recipients' other-concern mediated the effect that sadness expression had on claiming value among those recipients who construed blame as inappropriate. To test the significance of the indirect path (i.e., the path through the mediator), we followed a bootstrapping procedure (Preacher & Hayes, 2009). The result of 1,000 resamples demonstrated that zero fell outside of the 95% confidence interval of the indirect effect of other-concern (95% CI Low = .14; 95% CI High = 9.22). Thus, these analyses showed that recipients' other-concern mediated the positive effect that sadness had on recipients who construed blame as inappropriate.

Discussion

As in Experiments 1-2, sadness expression was effective *only* when a feature of the social situation provided recipients with a reason to act upon their other-concern for the expresser – in this case, a social norm about what was appropriate. Again, as in Experiments 1-2, the recipients' greater other-concern mediated the positive effect that sadness expression had on claiming value. The results of Experiment 3 are further consistent with those of Experiments 1-2 in that they also suggest that sadness has a differentiated effect from anger. But, while Experiments 1 and 2 only indirectly suggested it (i.e., by showing effects of sadness in situations where anger has been shown *not* be effective, see Van Kleef et al., 2010), Experiment 3 suggested it directly. It did so by building on the appraisal theory of emotions (e.g., Smith et al.,

1993; Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003), yet showing a behavioral consequence of this theory and extending it to the domain of negotiation.

General Discussion

Three experiments examined whether sadness expression would elicit greater concession-making in negotiations. All three experiments investigated face-to-face, actual negotiations (where participants interacted with each other). In Experiment 1, recipients conceded more to sad expressers than to neutral expressers (a) when they perceived the expresser as low-power or (b) when they anticipated a future interaction with him/her. In Experiment 2, recipients conceded more to sad expressers than to neutral expressers when recipients construed the relationship as collaborative even when no future interaction was anticipated. Thus, both Experiments 1 and 2 indirectly suggested that sadness differed from anger in that sadness was effective in social situations in which anger has been shown *not* to be effective (e.g., Van Kleef et al., 2004a, 2006b, 2010), namely low power (Experiment 1) and cooperative-like setting (Experiment 2). Experiment 3 more directly showed that sadness could differ from anger by making a direct comparison of sadness to anger. Specifically, building on the basic difference between these two emotions as suggested by appraisal theory of emotions (e.g., Ellsworth & Scherer, 2003), it showed that sadness was more effective than anger when recipients construed that blame was not appropriate. Further, all three experiments showed the mediating role of other-concern for the expresser. Hence, all three experiments documented that sadness expression could be effective toward recipients when, but only when, features of the social situation led recipients to act upon their other-concern.

Thus, all three experiments showed that sadness expression increased value claiming in negotiations when, but only when, the social situation provided reasons to experience concern

for the expresser. Specifically, these reasons lied in the *structure* of the interaction (low power and future interaction, Experiment 1), the nature of the *relationship* (Experiment 2), or *social norms* (blame inappropriateness, Experiment 3).

Implications for our Understanding of Sadness

Our findings show beneficial, behavioral effects of sadness expressions in social interactions. In doing so, they extend prior research that documented effects of sadness expressions on helping behavior through self-report (Graham et al., 2008) or participants finding out about another feeling sad (Clark et al., 1996; Small & Verrochi, 2009) to direct interactions between discrete expressers and recipients. Indeed, in prior research on the effects of sadness, sadness had not been directly expressed toward recipients: it resulted from a diffuse state (e.g., a sad mood or a still, advertisement picture) rather than from an acute, discrete emotional expression. Accordingly, whether recipients could positively react to sadness when it was directed toward them had remained unclear. Hence, to our knowledge, the current research is the first to show positive effects of sadness when it is explicitly directed toward those who make decisions about accommodating the expresser. Thus, our findings contribute not only to the negotiation and conflict literature, but also to the emotions literature.

The current findings accord with prior evidence that the expression of sadness elicits in recipients other-concern for the expresser, i.e., reactions of empathy and compassion as well as recognizing that the expresser might need help (Eisenberg et al., 1989; Horstmann, 2003; Small & Verrochi, 2009) insofar as the expression of sadness signals dependency and a need for support (e.g., Clark & Taraban, 1991; Eisenberg, 2000; Graham et al., 2008; Scherer & Grandjean, 2008). Importantly, the recipients' other-concern mediated the effect of sadness expression on value claiming across four different social contexts. And our varying items across

three experiments increased our confidence that our mediation for sadness expression was not limited to one particular set of items.

Furthermore, the current research extends prior research on sadness expression to the domain of conflict and negotiation. In mixed-motive situations (such as negotiations) too, sadness can be effective in eliciting positive responses (albeit under certain conditions). We believe this finding is important because it may, perhaps, not be straightforwardly derived from prior research. Indeed, negotiators often bring competitive assumptions to a negotiation (e.g., Thompson & Hastie, 1990) and it was often proposed, or implicitly assumed, that sadness expressions would be ineffective in mixed-motive interactions (e.g., Clark et al., 1987; Van Kleef et al., 2010). Thus far, prior research had mainly shown effects of sadness in charity (Small & Verrochi, 2009) or family-like (Clark & Mills, 2012) domains. Extending this prior research, we showed that sadness expressions could be effective in mixed-motive interactions such as negotiations when structural (Experiment 1), relationship (Experiment 2), or normative (Experiment 3) features in the social context of the negotiation prompted recipients to act upon their other-concern.

Implications for our Understanding of Negotiations

The current findings also speak to recent research on conflict and negotiation. First, recent research showed various effects of discrete emotional expressions in conflict and negotiation (Van Kleef et al., 2010). However, perhaps somewhat surprisingly given the importance and prevalence of that emotion in conflict and negotiation (e.g., Barry, 2008; Barry et al., 2004; Elfenbein, 2007), sadness expression had remained unexplored. Thus, as far as we know, the current research is the first to document effects of sadness expression in conflict and negotiation. And, it does so by simultaneously delineating four independent boundary conditions

that relate to how recipients construe the social context of the negotiation: namely, (a) how recipients construe the expresser's power (Experiment 1), (b) whether they anticipate a future interaction (Experiment 1), (c) how they construe the nature of the relationship even though no future interaction is anticipated (Experiment 2), and (d) how they construe social norms (Experiment 3). Overall, although theorists had long proposed that sadness expressions serve expressers by avoiding conflict (Darwin, 1872/1998), the current results suggest that strategic sadness expressions can serve expressers by obtaining acquiescence.

In addition, our results are consistent with recent research that shows that concern for others can influence even mixed-motive interactions such as negotiations. A negotiator might forgo objective gains when s/he is led to experience concern for the other party (Amanatullah et al., 2008; Curhan, Neale, Ross, & Rosencranz-Engelmann, 2008; DeRue et al., 2009; O'Connor & Arnold, 2011). Yet, our results extend that recent research by showing that concern for the other can be strategically elicited by expressers (rather than being the product of an individual difference or of the past). Also, the current research shows an instance (as in DeRue et al., 2009) in which concern for the other did not lead to economically inefficient outcomes for the dyad since, in all three experiments, sadness expression did not have any negative impact on value creation.

Importantly, our findings extend prior research on emotional expressions in negotiations by emphasizing the mediating role of other-concern in how emotional expressions influence the recipient to concede. This extension of prior research, we believe, is important because the mediating role of perceptions of toughness – i.e., that emotional expressions increase value-claiming through “conveying the impression of a hard-to-get, tough negotiator” (Van Kleef et al., 2004a, p. 58) – appeared thus far “to be the dominant story emerging from research” (Overbeck

et al., 2010, p. 127). Further, the current research departs from prior research on emotional expressions in negotiations not only by emphasizing a distinct mechanism, but also a mechanism of a different nature. Whereas prior research on emotional expressions in negotiations focused mostly on the *strategic informational inferences* that recipients make about an emotional expresser (Kopelman et al., 2006; Van Kleef et al., 2010; Van Kleef & De Dreu, 2010; Van Kleef & Sinaceur, in press), the current research emphasizes the importance of the recipients' *non-instrumental* reactions.

Limitations and Future Research

There are several limitations to our findings, however. Importantly, one downside of the strategic expression of sadness is that it could produce the experience of sadness. Indeed, expressing an emotion could result in feeling the emotion (Strack, Martin, & Stepper, 1988). Second, recipients might habituate to, or become annoyed by, sad expressers over time. Thus, expressing sadness might involve costs beyond obtaining immediate concessions.

In this first investigation of the effects of sadness expression on recipients' concessions in negotiation, we documented four independent boundary conditions that related to the social situation. However, there may be a number of avenues for future research. First, future research could explore how other aspects of the social situation beyond those we examined might also constitute critical boundary conditions for the positive effect of sadness in negotiation. For example, the lack of other-blame conveyed by sadness could have the positive outcome of reducing spirals of conflict. Accordingly, other critical boundary conditions for sadness in negotiation could lie in the initial severity of conflict or the consequences of further conflict. Thus, recipients might be more accommodating to sad rather than angry expressers when they appreciate the lack of conflict (see Elfenbein, 2007, p. 331). In addition, there could be other

aspects of the social situation that make it cooperative beyond those we examined. In particular, construing the negotiation as integrative or distributive is another critical aspect of the social situation, which importantly determines negotiators' behavior (e.g., Beersma & De Dreu, 2002; DeRue et al., 2009; Dimotakis, Conlon, & Ilies, 2012). Thus, the recipients' construing the negotiation as integrative versus distributive could also moderate the effect of sadness expression. Further, whether the recipient is himself/herself in a low versus high power position (see Van Kleef & Côté, 2007) might also be a boundary condition for sadness. Clearly, our choice of features of the social situation in the current paper was among the many boundary conditions that could be examined.

Other areas left for future research go beyond how recipients construe the social situation and could involve the way sadness is expressed. For example, recent research on emotional expressions allows one to speculate that whether sadness expression is deemed authentic versus inauthentic (see Côté, Hideg, & Van Kleef, 2012), when sadness is expressed during the negotiation (see Sinaceur et al., 2011), or whether sadness is consistent with the norms of the culture of the recipient (see Adam et al., 2010; Elfenbein, 2007; Kopelman & Rosette, 2008) might be other important boundary conditions for effects of sadness in negotiation.

Finally, the recipients' chronic dispositions might also moderate the effect of sadness expression in negotiation. Our studies documented that the recipients' concern for the other mediated the positive effect of sadness expression across different social situations. Future research may examine whether *individual-level*, chronic concern for others might also moderate the effect of sadness expression. For example, Social Values Orientation (SVO) has been shown to reliably influence negotiators' behavior (Ten Velden, Beersma, & De Dreu, 2007; see DeRue et al., 2009), particularly responses to another's emotional expressions (Van Kleef & De Dreu,

2010). Thus, the recipients' SVO might influence how they react to a sad expresser: only the recipients who are chronically, dispositionally high in other-concern might respond positively to a sad expresser.

Conclusion

Three experiments involved face-to-face, actual interactions and tested the proposition that sadness expression would increase value claiming in negotiation when, but only when, features of the social situation provides reasons to experience concern for the expresser. Experiment 1 examined *structural* features of the social situation, whereas Experiments 2-3 examined *relationship-related* and *normative* features of the social situation. More specifically, we examined four features of the social situation that might provide justifications to experience other-concern for a sad expresser, namely when recipients (a) perceived the opponent as low-power; (b) anticipated a future interaction; (c) construed the relationship as collaborative in nature; or (d) construed blame as inappropriate. Further, all three experiments showed the mediating role of concern for the expresser. In this way, the current research departs from prior research on emotional expressions in negotiation by emphasizing the importance of the recipients' *non-instrumental* reactions (rather than more strategic, *informational inferences*; Kopelman et al., 2006; Van Kleef et al., 2010; Van Kleef & Sinaceur, in press). Even in mixed-motive interactions such as negotiations, expressing sadness can be an effective strategy to *appeal* to the other party.

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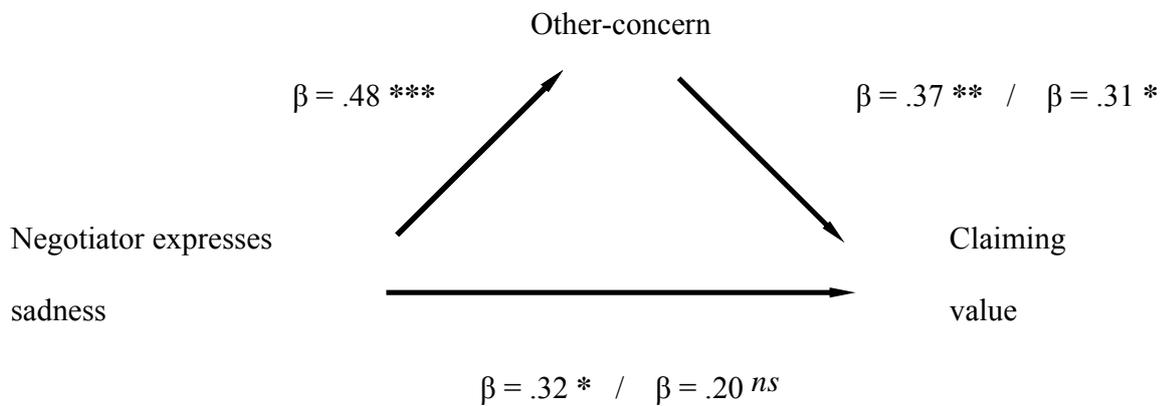
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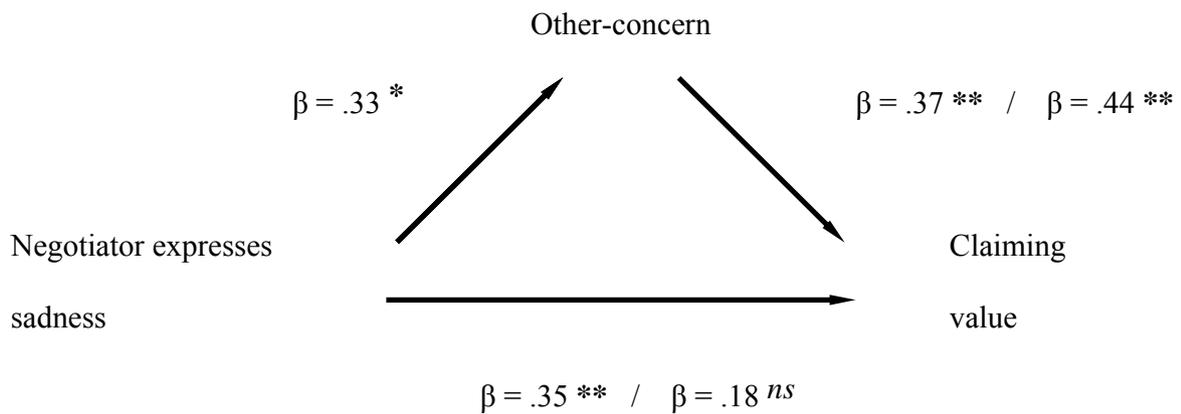
Figure 1. Experiment 1: Mediation by other-concern when recipients perceived the expresser as low-power



Note. The analyses include all dyads in which recipients perceived the expresser as low-power. Regressions that include sadness expression as a factor also control for the future interaction factor and their interaction term (thus, forming orthogonal factors). Numbers represent standardized regression coefficients.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

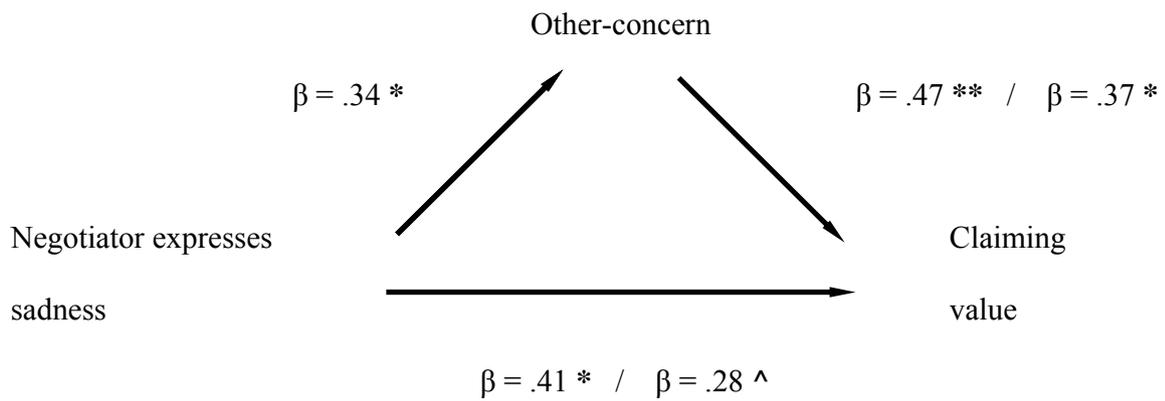
Figure 2. Experiment 1: Mediation by other-concern when recipients anticipated a future interaction



Note. The analyses include all dyads in which recipients anticipated a future interaction. Regressions that include sadness expression as a factor also control for the power perception factor and their interaction term (thus, forming orthogonal factors). Numbers represent standardized regression coefficients.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

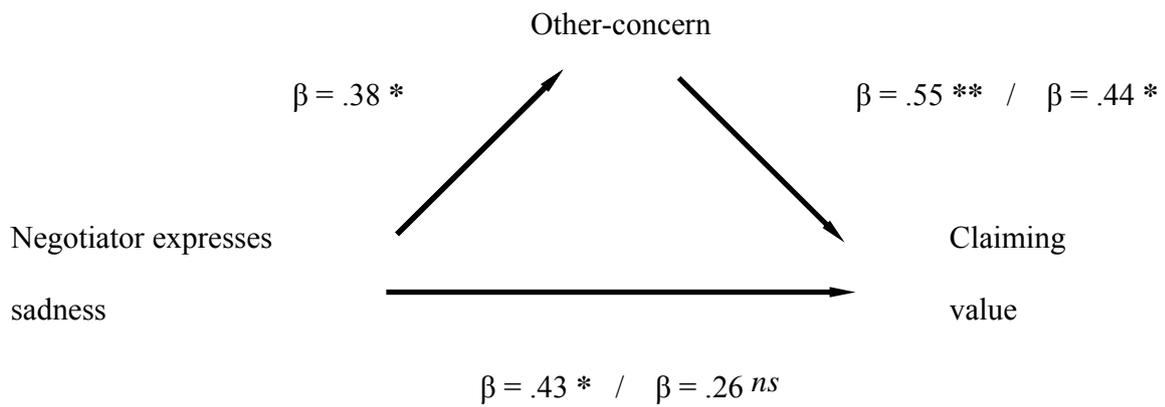
Figure 3. Experiment 2: Mediation by other-concern when recipients construed the relationship as collaborative



Note. The analyses include all dyads in which recipients construed the relationship as collaborative. Regressions that include sadness expression as a factor also control for the differences between the versions of the manipulations (not controlling for these yielded similar results). Numbers represent standardized regression coefficients.

$^{\wedge} p < .10, * p < .05, ** p < .01.$

Figure 4. Experiment 3: Mediation by other-concern when recipients construed blame as inappropriate



Note. The analyses include all dyads in which recipients construed blame as inappropriate. Numbers represent standardized regression coefficients.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Appendix (Experiments 1-2)

	PHARMALAB PAYOFF SCHEDULE	BIOHEALTH PAYOFF SCHEDULE
<u>PROFIT SHARING</u>	<u>POINTS</u>	<u>POINTS</u>
30% to BioHealth / 70% to PharmaLab	6,000	0
40% to BioHealth / 60% to PharmaLab	4,500	1,500
50% to BioHealth / 50% to PharmaLab	3,000	3,000
60% to BioHealth / 40% to PharmaLab	1,500	4,500
70% to BioHealth / 30% to PharmaLab	0	6,000
<u>MANUFACTURING FACILITIES</u>	<u>POINTS</u>	<u>POINTS</u>
Use BioHealth facilities	2,000	0
Use BioHealth facilities 70% & PharmaLab's 30%	1,500	1,000
Use BioHealth facilities 50% & PharmaLab's 50%	1,000	2,000
Use PharmaLab facilities 70% & BioHealth's 30%	500	3,000
Use PharmaLab facilities	0	4,000
<u>R&D INVESTMENT</u>	<u>POINTS</u>	<u>POINTS</u>
30% made by PharmaLab / 70% made by BioHealth	4,000	0
40% made by PharmaLab / 60% made by BioHealth	3,000	500
50% made by PharmaLab / 50% made by BioHealth	2,000	1,000
60% made by PharmaLab / 40% made by BioHealth	1,000	1,500
70% made by PharmaLab / 30% made by BioHealth	0	2,000
<u>SALES COVERAGE</u>	<u>POINTS</u>	<u>POINTS</u>
European Union-USA-Asia-Latin America	2,000	0
European Union-USA-Asia	1,500	500
European Union-USA-China	1,000	1,000
European Union-USA	500	1,500
France-Germany-USA	0	2,000

Note. Parties saw only their own payoff schedules and were not permitted to exchange them.